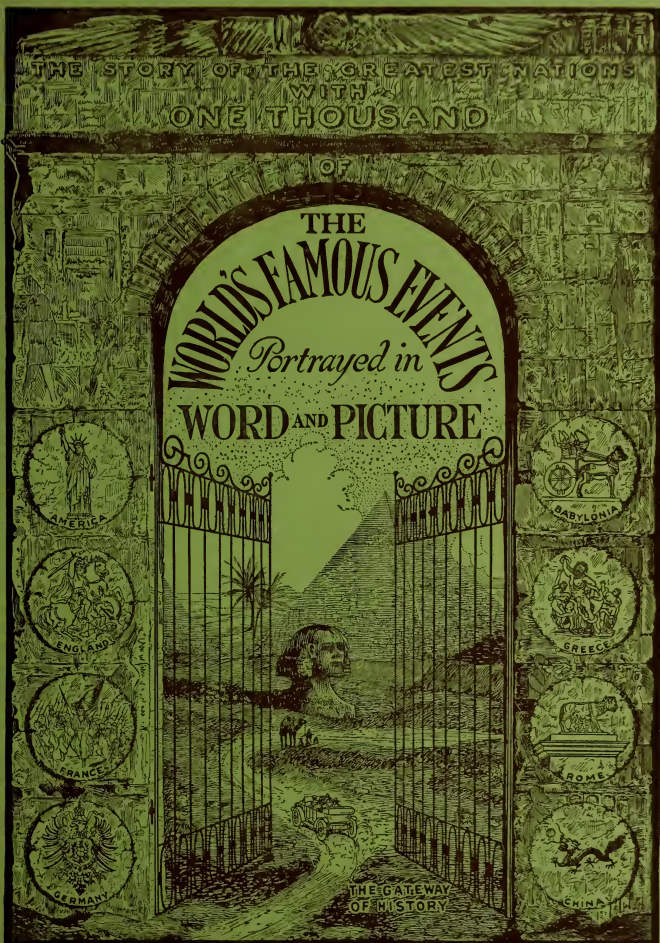


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ARTIST: THE ARTIST





## ARISTIDES THE JUST

(Aristides Asked to Write a Vote for His Own Banishment)

*Reproduced from Killemacher's picture in the "Historian's History of the World," by permission of the Encyclopædia Britannica Company of New York*

**A**THENS now entered on her glorious period of democratic government. We have seen how she had escaped her tyrants, and how the first fruit of the people's own rule had been the defiance of the Persians and the wonderful victory of Marathon. Never did a democracy begin its course with a more noble spirit or a more promising success. Even from the start, however, the Athenians displayed the characteristic weaknesses of a democracy. They were changeable in their decisions and easily led by any vehement and clever orator. Their two chief leaders after the downfall of Miltiades were Themistocles, who was an adventurer like the former, and Aristides, who was a patriot as loyal as he was eloquent, and so fair minded to all men that he was called "the Just."

So sharply did these two clash and so powerful was the influence of each to sway the citizens, that it was resolved that, as the only way of ending the tumults, one of the antagonists must be banished, or "ostracized," as the Athenians called it. So a vote was held and the decision was against Aristides. There is a story that one country fellow who could not write came ignorantly to Aristides and asked him to write a vote against himself. "What have you against Aristides?" the patriot asked. "Oh, nothing," replied the countryman, "only I am tired of always hearing him called 'the Just.'"









## THE END

The following is a list of the names of the persons who have been

connected with the history of the city of London, from the time of

the first settlement of the city, to the present time. The names are arranged in alphabetical order, and are given in full, with the dates of birth and death, where known. The names of the persons who have been connected with the history of the city, from the time of the first settlement of the city, to the present time, are given in full, with the dates of birth and death, where known. The names of the persons who have been connected with the history of the city, from the time of the first settlement of the city, to the present time, are given in full, with the dates of birth and death, where known.

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### THERMOPYLÆ

(The Three Hundred Spartans Overwhelmed by the Persian Hordes)

*From a painting by J. Steeple Davis, a contemporary American artist*

FOR ten years after the victory at Marathon, the Greeks remained untroubled by the Persians. But this was only the calm before the storm. King Darius was gathering against them all the forces of his vast empire; he died and the expedition against them was led by his successor, King Xerxes. So stupendous was this army of Xerxes that tradition says it contained three million men. All the outlying Greek cities yielded in despair as the huge mass moved onward, gathering numbers from among the conquered, increasing like a monstrous snowball as it rolled along.

This time it was the Spartans who won fame by their resistance. The place selected by the Greeks to check the advance of the Persian horde was Thermopylæ, a narrow pass along the seashore between a mountain crag and the sea, on the mainland of northern Greece before you reach Athens. Here a small Greek force held back the Persians during three days of fighting. Then a traitor guided the Persians around the pass by a mountain path. Knowing that they would be surrounded, the Greeks retreated. But three hundred Spartans, under their King Leonidas, refused to retreat. They were attacked from all sides by the enemy and slew thousands of them, fighting until the last Spartan fell.









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## THE VICTORS OF SALAMIS

(Delirious Rejoicing of the Athenians after Their Great and Unexpected Victory)

*From the celebrated painting by Fernand Cormon, a French artist born 1845*

AFTER the dear-bought victory at Thermopylæ, the Persians marched on Athens and demanded its surrender. Instead of yielding, the Athenians boarded their ships in a body and all sailed away. The city itself was sacked and burned by the Persians. Then the Athenians, having placed their women and children in safety on the island of Salamis, came back with their ships to attack the huge Persian fleet which protected and provisioned the Persian army.

The celebrated naval battle of Salamis followed. There were with the Athenian ships many other Greek vessels, and the command of the combined fleet was given to a Spartan. He and the other Greeks feared to attack the Persians and would have fled but for that daring and crafty Athenian, Themistocles. He sent a message to the Persian king directing him how to cut off the Greek retreat. When this had been done, Themistocles showed the other Greeks they had no hope but in victory, and the Athenian ships led them in a desperate attack. Their victory broke the power of the Persians and determined that Europe, not Asia should rule the world. Xerxes fled back to Persia, leaving half his army to continue the war on land. The Athenians had almost abandoned hope when their city was destroyed; they had imagined themselves already reduced to slavery. So now they celebrated their victory with universal rejoicing and the most extravagant joy.







## 2367A.17



## PLATÆA

(The Final Expulsion of the Persians from Greece)

*Painted specially for this series by J. Steeple Davis*

THE triumph of Salamis did not end the Persian invasion. It only crushed the Persian fleet and chilled the heart of the Persian monarch. He left behind him an army quite sufficient, according to the Persian view, to finish the conquest of Greece. This army ravaged all northern Greece as it had ravaged Athens. Finally the Spartans, the Athenians and most of the other Greeks gathered all their fighting men and attacked the vast Persian army in a battle at Platæa. In this culminating struggle, the Spartans had beside a force of thirty thousand slaves, ten thousand of their own citizens in arms. The Athenians had eight thousand, and the Corinthians, five. The other Greek cities were represented by much smaller numbers; and these may be taken as measuring the relative importance of the cities except that the Thebans and Argives were not there. The Thebans had been forced by the conquest of their state to join the Persian ranks, and the Argives hated Sparta too bitterly to fight upon her side.

At Platæa the Persians made the first attack and were repelled by the steadiness of the Spartans. The Athenians also performed prodigies of valor, and after a long and doubtful struggle the enemy fled in utter defeat. The spoils won by the Greeks were enormous. The Persians hastily withdrew their shattered forces from Greece and from all Europe, and never ventured upon another invasion.







Harold Dow





## THE HISTORY OF THE

REIGN OF THE EMPEROR OF THE EAST

BY THE REV. J. G. COLEMAN, M.A.

THE HISTORY OF THE REIGN OF THE EMPEROR OF THE EAST, FROM THE DEATH OF THE EMPEROR OF THE WEST, TO THE PRESENT TIME, IS A HISTORY OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AND INTERESTING PERIOD OF THE HISTORY OF THE EAST. THE HISTORY OF THE REIGN OF THE EMPEROR OF THE EAST, FROM THE DEATH OF THE EMPEROR OF THE WEST, TO THE PRESENT TIME, IS A HISTORY OF THE MOST IMPORTANT AND INTERESTING PERIOD OF THE HISTORY OF THE EAST.

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## THE "PERSIANS" OF ÆSCHYLUS

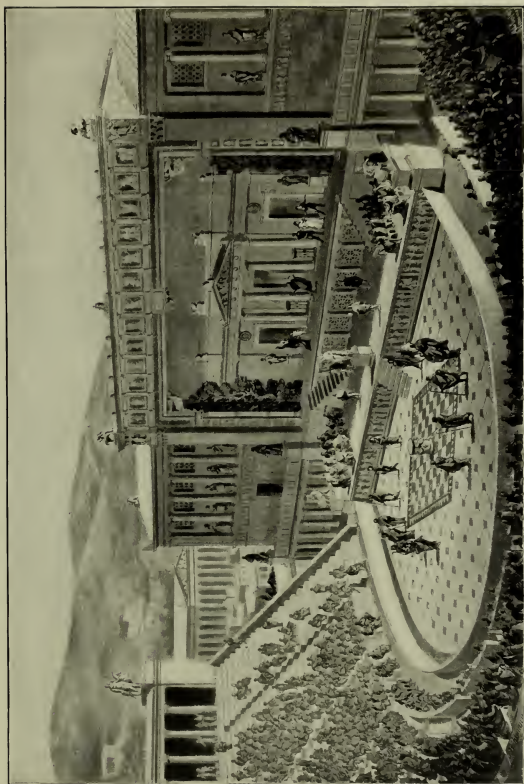
(The First Performance of the Celebrated Patriotic Drama in the  
Dionysiac Theatre in Athens)

*An accurate restoration of the Theatre by the antiquarian, J. Bühlmann*

THE glorious ending of the Persian war gave a new impetus of wealth and pride and self-confidence to all the cities of Greece, but especially to Athens. Sparta by her splendid showing in the final victory at Platæa had retained her leadership upon land; but at sea the Athenians had been undeniably the champions of Greece, and had proved themselves the ablest sea-fighters of the world.

Their glories were celebrated by a new form of art, the drama. The first great dramatist of the world was the Athenian Æschylus, who had fought both at Marathon and at Salamis. Burning with patriotic pride, he seized upon the crude form of public recitation which was all his predecessors had known in the way of theatricals, and from it he created the world-famed "Greek Drama." His theme was the greatness of Greece, the victories of Athens. The Athenians built a public theatre in the open air right beneath the hill of the Acropolis, so that all might listen to his plays. There his "Persians" and other dramas were enacted in competition against those which other enthusiastic Athenians began to write. A flood of patriotism was aroused that lifted all Athens to a spiritual and intellectual plane such as man had never reached before. Athens, which the Persians had destroyed, rose like a phœnix from the flames. It was rapidly rebuilt and became more beautiful than before.











## HERODOTUS IN ATHENS

(The "Father of History" Reads to the Athenians His Story of the Persian War)

*From a painting by J. Steeple Davis*

**I**NTELLECTUALLY Athens became the acknowledged leader of Greece. In military affairs also she began to assert herself. As the city was being rebuilt the Spartans sent envoys to urge the Athenians not to build a wall about their city, as its position outside the Peloponnesus made it indefensible. Practically this order was a command; but the Athenians told the Spartans defiantly that Athens would submit to no dictation. After this Athens made herself head of a great naval league, toward which the victory of Salamis had paved the way. As ruler of the seas, she gradually drew into her league all the Greek islands, which came to look upon her as the centre of their world.

Thus from one of these islands there was drawn into the brilliant intellectual life of Athens the youth Herodotus, who was to become very celebrated indeed as "the father of history." Herodotus had been only a child when Salamis and Plataea were fought; but, thrilled with the greatness of the story, he gathered all its details and wrote the tale all out as the first complete and unified history. He read this to his friends, the Athenians, and as they listened and heard their own glory thus enshrined to be preserved forever, they rewarded the historian by voting him a fortune out of the city's money. It was by this promptness in recognizing and welcoming genius in every form that Athens became the wonderful city that she was.











## ART. I. OF THE CONSTITUTION

OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

As amended by the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, Fifteenth, and Nineteenth Amendments.

**A**RTICLE I. — Section 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives. Section 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

Section 3. The Senate shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for a Term of six Years; and each Senator shall have the Qualifications requisite for Senators of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature. Section 4. The Times, Places and Manner of holding the Elections of Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law alter or add to the Rules and Regulations of the foregoing.

Section 5. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be held on the first Monday of December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day. Section 6. The Congress shall be held at the City of New York, until they shall have provided for the Meeting of the same in another Place within the United States.

Section 7. The Congress shall have Power to lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States.





## ART, LOVE, AND STATESMANSHIP

(Pericles Brings Aspasia to the Workshop of Phidias)

*From the painting by Hector Le Roux, the noted French historical painter of Verdun*

ATHENS could well afford to give away fortunes as she did to Herodotus; for the naval league which she had established soon made her the wealthiest city of the world. Every maritime state of Greece contributed a large yearly sum to support this navy; and if any city objected to paying whatever it was told, the navy itself under Athenian captains was used to enforce the contribution.

This remarkable tyranny by a democracy was guided for over thirty years (461-430 B. C.) by a most noteworthy statesman and orator, the famous Pericles. Under his leadership the Athenians expended their wealth in beautifying their city with the statues and buildings which have become the wonder and delight of all future ages. As chief artist among this city of artists there stood forth Phidias, to whom Pericles intrusted the supervision of all the great architectural works, including the matchless building, the Parthenon. The statue of Minerva by Phidias was the most perfect in the world.

Another protégé of Pericles was the beautiful and learned Aspasia, an Asiatic Greek, who established a sort of "salon" in Athens, where all the foremost philosophers met. Pericles was devoted to her, and she is said to have helped him in framing his celebrated orations. As an instance of the fickleness of democracies, it may be added that both Phidias and Aspasia were, as friends of Pericles, persecuted by his political enemies. Aspasia he only barely saved, and Phidias died in prison.











## SOCRATES AND ALCIBIADES

(The Grave Philosopher Instructs the Budding Genius)

*From a painting by the recent German artist, Henry Shopin*

**P**ERICLES had a young nephew, Alcibiades, who became almost as famous as the earlier statesman, and is constantly quoted as the type of the citizens developed in Athens under the administration of Pericles. Born in 450 B.C., Alcibiades was placed from early youth under the guidance of masters of every sort. The education of the Athenian lads of the time included instruction in all the fine arts, especially oratory. Athletic training was also carefully considered; and a third department of education gradually came to be regarded as the most important of all, this was philosophy.

Greatest of all the philosophers, the deep searchers into the meaning of life, who followed after Thales and Pythagoras, was the immortal Socrates, who was the teacher of Alcibiades. Socrates was a native of Attica, poor, but so keen of mind that he won admission to the salon of Aspasia and gathered knowledge from her and from Pericles. He devoted himself to the service of Athens not as a statesman, for he frequently refused public office, but as a teacher. He walked about the city conversing everywhere, arguing by what we call the Socratic method, that is, he would ask questions which gradually led the answerer to see the necessity of admitting the conclusions which Socrates drew. It is this method which our picture shows him employing with Alcibiades. By it he preached religion, temperance, and altruistic love for humanity.











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## DANCING AMID DEATH

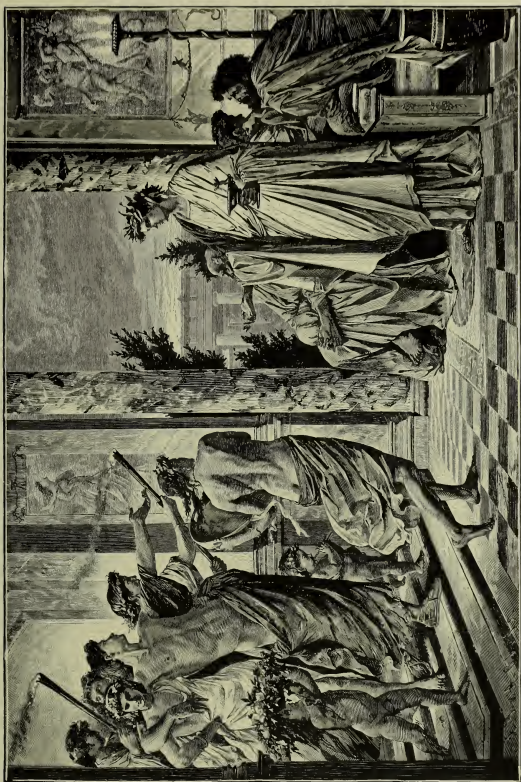
(Alcibiades Insists on Revelling Amid Plague and War)

*From the painting by the German artist, Anselm Feuerbach (1829-1880)*

THE tyranny of Athens led to the overthrow of the naval empire she had established. Sparta, Corinth and most of the other cities formed a league against Athens and began the tremendous Peloponnesian War, which lasted for nearly thirty years (432-404 B. C.). On sea the Athenians were at first victorious; but on land they could not match the combined forces arrayed against them, so Athens was besieged, and her territory ravaged year after year. A terrible plague appeared within the stricken city, the first record we have of the visitation of such a scourge. The people perished in hideous numbers. Pericles himself, who had guided the Athenians during the first successful year of the war, fell a victim of the plague.

Meanwhile the Athenians clung heroically to their empire, and refused all advice of submission to their foes. They insisted on facing death as gayly as they had enjoyed life. The great writer and philosopher Plato, foremost of the disciples of Socrates, has left an account of one Athenian banquet of this period, which is depicted here. Socrates and Plato sat dining with a friend when Alcibiades burst in crowned with flowers and accompanied by musicians and dancers. He insisted on their all joining him in revelry.











## THE DISASTER AT SYRACUSE

(The Last Stand of the Despairing Athenians)

*From a painting by the contemporary American artist, J. Steeple Davis*

**A**FTER the death of Pericles, Alcibiades became the chief leader and adviser of the Athenians in the terrible Peloponnesian War. At his urgency the Athenians, though sore pressed at home by disease and by the foe, resolved to expend all their forces in an expedition against Syracuse, the great metropolis of Sicily, a city well-nigh as famed and powerful as Athens itself. This expedition began with evil omen and ended in a disaster which crushed the military power of Athens.

Just as the fleet was about to sail for Syracuse, some one desecrated a number of the statues of the gods throughout the neighborhood of Athens. Alcibiades, who commanded the fleet, was accused of having committed the sacrilege in a drunken revel. He was summoned to answer the charge, and this left the great expedition without any competent leader. It was terribly mismanaged. A Spartan fleet and general came to the aid of the Syracusans. Finally the Athenian fleet was itself blockaded within the harbor and totally destroyed. The Athenian land force of over forty thousand men was then attacked and driven back starving into the interior of Sicily. The miserable remnant of the mighty force at length surrendered to the Syracusans and became slaves in the horrible depths of the mines of Syracuse. The disaster was perhaps the most complete and crushing that has ever stricken a mighty nation.













## THE DEATH OF ALCIBIADES

(The Persians Attack the Celebrated Warrior from a Distance)

*From a drawing by the American artist, Montague Cary*

THE career of the gay and brilliant Alcibiades ended in disaster as black as that which had befallen Athens. He failed to return to Athens to meet the charge of sacrilege which had been made against him. Instead he went to Sparta and, burning for revenge against the political rivals who had ruined him, he turned against his country. He was a main factor in teaching the Spartans how to defeat his compatriots at Syracuse and in Greece itself. He even went to Asia Minor and persuaded the Persian "satrap" there to join the alliance against Athens. Then he offered the Athenians to check the Persian assault if they would restore him to their midst. They did so; and once more he showed as an able Athenian general, defeating the Spartans in a great naval combat.

At length, however, while Alcibiades had left a subordinate in charge of the fleet, it was defeated and completely destroyed. Alcibiades, not daring to return to Athens to meet the charges which would assuredly follow, fled again to the shelter of the Persians. Here he was at first received with honor; but the Spartans, now once more in the full strength of success, insisted that Alcibiades must die. So a band of Persian soldiers were sent to slay him. He fought them so desperately that finally they drew off in a ring away from him and showered him with spears until he perished. He was perhaps the ablest and most unprincipled of all the Greeks.











## SOCRATES DRINKS THE HEMLOCK

(The Great Philosopher is Condemned to Death and Drinks the Cup of Poison)

*Copied from a noted print of the eighteenth century*

THE end of the Peloponnesian War found Athens helpless. Her fleet was taken away, her walls were beaten down, and she was compelled to submit to the rule of the "Thirty," a band of savage and traitorous partisans of Sparta, who installed a reign of terror over the unhappy city. The Thirty were soon deposed and the democracy restored, but the spirit of tyranny remained. A startling example of it was the trial and condemnation of the great philosopher, Socrates, which occurred in the year 399 B. C.

He was accused by his political enemies of denying the religion held by the state and of corrupting the youth of Athens. The first charge was true, at least to the extent that he ridiculed many of the superstitious ceremonies of the day and that he had arrived instinctively at a broad faith resembling Christianity in his belief in one God and in the "inner voice" or conscience of man. The second charge was cruelly untrue. While Socrates' favorite pupil, Alcibiades had certainly proved unprincipled, most of the great master's disciples had drawn from him the purest, highest spirit possible to those days. Yet Socrates was condemned, and sitting calmly in his prison amid his weeping friends he drank off the poison presented him by the executioner and died as nobly, as calmly and as heroically as he had lived.









leading aristocratic rival, Cimon, the son of Miltiades, stooped to curry favor with the people, to praise them for their greatness, to scatter money among them, to clap them on the back and set them drinking. Pericles was always quiet, retiring, even austere; but the people trusted him, and followed him as they would no other. His oratory is said to have been so convincing that he carried all men with him, even his enemies.

These, finding him invulnerable to their attacks, assailed him through his friends. In the early days of his success, when party feeling was at its highest, his comrade and equal, Ephialtes, was murdered by the aristocracy. It is the sole instance of such an outbreak during the age, and by the indignation aroused, it contributed not a little to the success of Pericles. Later his foes tried subtler arts. His close friend, Socrates, was repeatedly accused of impiety in his teachings to the young, and was finally, after Pericles' death, executed on that charge. Aspasia was also assailed because of her relations to the great statesman.

The main force of this cowardly method of attack, however, was directed against the unfortunate sculptor Phidias. He was first accused of having stolen for himself some of the gold intended for the statue of Minerva in the Parthenon. Fortunately, Pericles, foreseeing this very charge, had advised his friend to place the gold on in such a way that it could be removed without damaging the statue. So Pericles was able to clear himself triumphantly by taking off the gold and weighing it in the presence of his enemies. Then he was accused of impiety and insolence toward the gods in that he had placed a likeness of himself and also one of Pericles among the figures on Minerva's shield. What truth there may have been in this charge we hardly know. The sculptor was thrown in prison to await trial, but when the jailors came to bring him before the tribunal they found him dead. Perhaps he had been poisoned by those evil foes, whose malice found in his wonderful genius only an additional stimulus to their hatred.

It is plain, then, that Pericles' power in Athens was not absolute, yet he remained its leading citizen and guide until his death. This occurred during the early days of the great Peloponnesian war, a tragedy which he had long sought to avoid, but whose early operations he managed with wisdom and success. Athens was stricken with a plague, and Pericles was among the victims. As he lay dying, the friends who surrounded his bed whispered of this and that great deed that he had performed. "You forget," said he, rousing, "the distinction of which I am most proud. No Athenian has ever put on mourning for any act of mine."



SPARTAN SPIES WATCHING ATHENS FROM ELEUSIS

## Chapter XIX

### THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR



THE grandest scheme of Pericles was that of uniting the Grecian states into a Hellenic confederation the aim of which was to end the mutually destructive wars of the kindred peoples. He opened negotiations for that purpose, and had his countrymen been able to measure up to his far-reaching sagacity, Greece would have become a mighty nation fitted to confront the world. There would have been no danger from the semibarbarous Macedonians, and it is not improbable that Rome herself, at a later period, would have been compelled to stop the march of her legions on the shores of the Adriatic instead of the Euphrates. But the other Greeks could not appreciate the nobility of such patriotism, and through their secret intrigues brought the magnificent scheme to naught. Sparta and Athens, each jealous of the other, were long in such mood toward each other that war was inevitable.

Their immediate cause of battle was found in the quarrels of their lesser allies. The Corcyraeans had founded the city of Epidamnus on the coast of Illyria. Corcyra (now Corfu) was itself a colony of Corinth, and though long on ill terms with her, was obliged, according to long-established custom, to select the founder of Epidamnus from the Corinthians, whose city therefore became the metropolis of Epidamnus also. The people of the latter were hard pressed at that time by the Illyrians, and applied to Corcyra for help, which

was refused. Then they turned to the Corinthians, who organized a force to assist them. This highly angered the Corcyræans, who proceeded to upset the Epidamnian government, and blockaded the town and its Corinthian garrison. Then the Corinthians fitted out a stronger fleet, aided by their allies, but they were decisively defeated by the Corcyræans off Cape Actium, and on the same day Epidamnus surrendered to their blockading squadron.

The Corinthians were humiliated beyond endurance. They devoted two years to preparing to wipe out the disgrace and built so formidable a navy that the alarmed Corcyræans applied to Athens for help. The Corinthians also sent an embassy thither to protest. After much hesitation the Athenians concluded a merely defensive alliance with Corcyra. In other words, it was agreed to help the Corcyræans in case their country was actually invaded, but to go no further.

In the naval battle which soon followed, the victory was won by the Corinthians, whereupon the Athenians abandoned their neutrality, and the small force they had sent to the help of the Corcyræans did its utmost to save them from their pursuers. When the battle was renewed, the help of the Athenians enabled the Corcyræans to defeat their enemies. This was in B.C. 432.

The Corinthians were not the ones to forgive Athens for the part she had played and they longed for the opportunity of revenge. Some time previously the Athenians had received into their alliance two brothers of the Macedonian prince Perdiccas, with whom he was at odds. In his resentment, Perdiccas stirred up a revolt among the tributaries of Athens, giving special attention to the town of Potidæa, on the isthmus of Pallene. Though it was tributary to Athens, it was originally a colony of Corinth toward which it still owed a certain allegiance. Perdiccas sent envoys to the town to start a revolt, and despatched others to Sparta to urge the Peloponnesian league to declare war against Athens.

Well aware of what was going on, the Athenian fleet on its way to act against Perdiccas ordered the Potidæans to level the walls of their town toward the sea, to send away the Corinthian delegates, and to give hostages as pledges of their future loyalty. The reply of the Potidæans was to raise the standard of revolt. The Athenians were tardy in acting, and the Corinthians used the time in throwing reinforcements into the town. A half understanding was patched up with Perdiccas and the entire Athenian force marched overland to Potidæa. In the battle fought outside the town, the Corinthians were defeated and withdrew into Potidæa, which was besieged both by sea and land.

The Lacedæmonians yielded to the urgings of their allies and called a general meeting of the Peloponnesian confederacy at Sparta. There were numerous grievances against Athens, and after earnest debate it was decided by a

large majority vote to declare war against her. A second congress of the allies was summoned at Sparta, when the whole Peloponnesian confederacy pledged itself to the war. This important resolution was adopted near the close of B.C. 432, or a few months later.

The formidable character of the war can be gathered from the respective allies arrayed on the two sides. With Sparta was the whole of Peloponnesus, except Argos and Achaia, and also the Megarians, Bœotians, Phocians, Opuntian Locrians, Ambraciots, Leucadians, and Anactorians. Their lack was a strong navy, though ships were furnished by Corinth and several other cities. Aid in this direction was expected from the Dorian cities in Italy and Sicily, and it was the intention to apply to the Persian king for a Phœnician fleet to use against Athens.

The allies of Athens were all insular with the exception of the Thessalians, Acarnanians, Messenians at Naupactus, and Plateæans, and they included the Chians, Lesbians, Corcyræans and Zacynthians, and later the Cephallenians, and also the tributary towns on the coast of Thrace and Asia Minor, and all the islands north of Crete, except Melos and Thera. Athens had also at immediate command 300 triremes, 1,200 cavalry, 1,600 bowmen, and 29,000 hoplites. The treasury at the Acropolis contained \$7,000,000, with a reserve fund in the shape of the plate and votive offerings in the temple, besides which she could count upon the annual tribute of her subjects. Sad it was that these two formidable rivals could not have joined hands as Pericles had urged, instead of flying at each other's throat; but such has been the madness of men from remote generations.

The Lacedæmonians ordered their allies to send two-thirds of their disposable troops to the isthmus of Corinth, for the purpose of invading Attica. The Spartan king Archidamus was their commander-in-chief, and he hoped that when the Athenians learned of the vastly superior force threatening them they would yield; but at the instance of Pericles, the herald who was sent forward by the Spartan commander was not allowed to enter the city.

The soldiers under the command of Archidamus numbered nearly a hundred thousand, and for a time he held back, still hoping the Athenians would see the folly of resisting him; but finding this hope in vain, he moved slowly forward, and by a roundabout route crossed the border and arrived at Eleusis in the month of June, B.C. 431.

Following the orders of Pericles, the inhabitants of Attica secured themselves and their property within the walls of Athens, which was greatly crowded therefrom. Encamping within a few miles of the city, Archidamus ravaged the fertile country, destroying crops and property to such an extent that the owners were roused to exasperation and demanded of Pericles the privilege of marching

out and attacking the despoilers. Because he resolutely refused this Pericles was denounced as a traitor. He would not risk an open battle, though he permitted a number of forays upon the enemy by way of retaliation. Still further, he retaliated upon Peloponnesus itself, where much damage was done by the troops sent thither on his vessels. It was this expedition that secured the voluntary submission of the island of Cephallenia and its enrolment among the allies of Athens.

The naval operations of the year were of considerable importance. Incensed against Ægina for the part its inhabitants had taken in bringing on the war, Pericles himself led a fleet against them and totally destroyed their seventy five ships. The island was almost depopulated, the people fleeing to the mainland, where they settled under the protection of Sparta. It was not until the close of the long war that they were able to return to their ruined homes.

Archidamus withdrew from Attica at the end of about six weeks, and the Athenians took sharp vengeance upon the Megarians, whose territory they ruthlessly ravaged; and the same thing was repeated every season up to the close of the war. It was apparent to both sides that the hostilities would continue for a long time, and preparations were made to that end.

The next year, the invasion of Attica by Archidamus was accompanied by a more dreadful enemy. A plague broke out which carried off one-third of the whole population, among them Pericles himself, whose death we have already noted. The scenes were dreadful beyond description, with the dead and dying lying unheeded in the streets and the dogs fighting over the bodies. Those who escaped the grisly visitation were oppressed by almost mortal despondency, during which the invasion of the Lacedæmonians was pushed to the more southern portions of Attica, while the privateers of their fleet inflicted great damage upon the Athenian commerce and fisheries. Sad to say, too, each side was guilty of atrocities more worthy of savages than of civilized persons.

The third year of the war (B.C. 429) opened with nothing decisive accomplished by either party. The fact that the country had already been ravaged by two invasions, and the fear of the plague led Archidamus to direct his energies against the town of Plataea. In reply to the protests of the defenders, he agreed to respect their independence if they would promise to remain neutral. The Plataeans replied that they would do nothing without the consent of the Athenians, in whose care they had placed their families. Archidamus offered to hand over their town and territory to the Lacedæmonians, pledging to hold everything in trust until the end of the war, when it should be restored to them. The offer was so fair that the majority favored accepting it, but decided that the consent of the Athenians must first be obtained. The answer to their message to Athens was an exhortation for them to hold out and the promise to

send the needed assistance. The reply was proclaimed from the walls, and Archidamus, who seemed really to be reluctant to press the siege, felt that he had no excuse for holding back. This siege formed one of the most remarkable episodes of the Peloponnesian war.

The garrison consisted of only 400 citizens and 80 Athenians, including also 110 women for the management of household affairs. This number defied the whole army of Archidamus, who set about his work with deliberation and skill. He first surrounded the town with a palisade, thus shutting in the garrison against any escape during the storm or darkness of night. Then he began building an immense mound of timber, earth, and stones against the wall, the outer side sloping away in an inclined plane. It will be seen that when this was completed it would give an easy road to the top of the wall, over which the besieging troops could pass without trouble.

The entire army labored at this miniature mountain for seventy days and nights. In the mean time, the Plataeans undermined the vast mound and caused it to fall in repeatedly, but the besiegers overcame this difficulty. When, however, they carried the summit to the level of the wall, they were frustrated by the cleverness of the defenders, who had built a new wall, curving inward like a horseshoe, which left the threatened portion of the old one outside. When that should be carried, the besiegers would be in no better position than before.

Baffled in this manner, the Lacedæmonians settled down to a blockade that should compel the little garrison to yield through hunger. The town was surrounded by a double wall, the space between being sixteen feet wide and roofed over, with a deep ditch on the outside and one on the inside toward the city. A large number of troops were left to guard this wall and keep watch of the defenders, while those who could be spared were sent to other fields of operation.

The siege lasted two years, during which not a thing was done by the Athenians for the relief of Plataea, but in the second year one-half the garrison escaped by means of a daring stratagem. Provisions were running low and the Plataean commander urged the men to make the attempt, but only 212 had the courage to try the hazardous venture.

On a cold, stormy night in December, these men stole like so many phantoms out of the gates, each carrying a ladder, adapted to the height of the wall. These were set against it midway between the two towers occupied by the guard, and the first party went up and killed the sentinels on duty, without causing any alarm. Nearly all the Plataeans had gained the summit, when one of them knocked down a tile in the darkness, the noise of whose fall told the guards what was going on. They instantly turned out, but were at great disadvantage, for in the darkness all was confusion, and the lighted torches which



they carried made them targets for the arrows and javelins of the Plataeans, who had reached the other side of the walls. All escaped except one man, who was captured, and several who lost heart and turned back.

Starvation threatened the remaining garrison. The Lacedæmonian commander could have taken the place by storm, but refrained, because if he did so he would be compelled to give it up at the conclusion of peace, whereas if the submission was voluntary his country would have the right to keep it. When, therefore, the demand was made for surrender with the promise that only the guilty should be punished, the terms were accepted and Plataea submitted in B.C. 427. Sad to say, the 200 Plataeans and 25 Athenians, after the mockery of a trial, were put to death, and the town transferred to the Thebans, who sometime later levelled the houses to the earth.

The events of the remaining years of the war were indecisive down to B.C. 421, when a truce or pretended peace—that of Nicias—was made. A good deal of injury had been inflicted on both sides, but since the towns captured were mutually to be restored, Sparta and Athens, with the exception of the loss of life and suffering, stood where they were at the breaking out of hostilities. In the fifth year, Mitylene had been captured and the Athenian assembly, urged thereto by Cleon and other demagogues, decreed that all of the Mityleneans should be put to death; but the terrible decision was reversed just in time to prevent its being carried into effect. The awful plague came back in the sixth year, and there were floods and earthquakes of great violence. The Athenians proved themselves masters on the sea, and having blockaded Sphacteria, where the flower of the Lacedæmonian army were shut in, the Spartans were so despondent that they sued Athens for peace; but the terms of Cleon were so extravagant that they could not be accepted, and the war went on. Finally, as we have learned, peace was declared in the eleventh year of the war, when it was decreed that the peace should last for fifty years. It was about this time that the marplot Cleon was slain, while suffering defeat at the hands of Brasidas, who also lost his life.

The terms of the treaty between the Athenian Nicias and the Spartan king Pleistoanax provided for a mutual restitution of prisoners and places captured during the war, but the Thebans retained the ruins of Plataea on the claim that it had been voluntarily surrendered, while on the same grounds Athens was allowed to keep Nisæa, Anactorium, and Sollium. Neutral towns were to remain independent and pay only the assessments of Athens. By the terms of this treaty, as will be seen, Sparta sacrificed the interests of her allies in order to preserve her own. They were sullen and resentful, and the Bœotians, Corinthians, Eleans, and Megarians refused to ratify the agreement. This action alarmed Sparta, which formed an offensive and defensive alliance with Athens,

it being agreed that each might increase or diminish at pleasure the number of its allies and subjects.

Matters were in a worse shape than before. The dissatisfied allies of Sparta set to work to revive the ancient pretensions of Argos, and to make her the head of a new league which should include all Greece with the exception of Athens and Sparta. The Corinthians launched this important scheme, and were soon joined by the Eleans and Mantineans and the Chalcidians. Tegea, Bœotia and Megara, however, held aloof.

This state of affairs was very unsatisfactory to Athens and Sparta. The latter confessed that she could not compel her allies to ratify the treaty, and the successor of Brasidas, in command at Amphipolis, claimed he was not strong enough to surrender it against the will of the inhabitants. He withdrew the garrison, but the Athenians made no attempt to occupy the town. Athens on her part refused to evacuate Pylus, although she removed the Helots and Messenians from it.

The negotiations regarding the surrender of Pylus brought forward one of the most remarkable Greeks of his time. This was Alcibiades, born in Athens, B.C. 450. We have already seen him as the pupil and friend of Socrates. He was educated in the house of Pericles, his uncle, and in his youth gave evidence of extraordinary mental and bodily gifts. He was of distinguished birth, handsome of person, very wealthy, and highly popular, but was unable to restrain his love of luxury and dissipation. He bore arms for the first time when eighteen years old in the expedition against Potidæa, where he was wounded and was saved from death by Socrates. Eight years later, it was his privilege to save in turn the life of the philosopher at the battle of Delium.

Alcibiades took no part in politics until after the death of Cleon, when he exerted all his great ability to stir up the old enmity against Sparta. It was due to him that the Athenians engaged in the enterprise of conquering Syracuse, the most important city of Sicily. If this proved successful, Athens would gain a vast preponderance over Sparta, and Alcibiades would be carried to the topmost wave of prosperity and glory. In B.C. 415, the Athenians despatched a fleet and army against Syracuse, to which the Spartans sent reinforcements, and thus the Peloponnesian war was renewed.

The story of Alcibiades is deeply interesting. He was appointed to the command of the Sicilian expedition, together with Nicias and Lamachus; but while preparations were under way, it happened one night that all the statues of Mercury in Athens were mutilated. The people were exasperated, and well knowing the roystering character of Alcibiades, they laid the blame upon him and his boon companions. His enemies waited, however, until he had sailed upon his expedition, when they kindled so strong a resentment against him

that he was recalled to stand trial. He was incensed, and on his way home landed at Thurii, made his escape, and, fleeing to Sparta, speedily made himself highly popular with the people. It was he who persuaded the Lacedæmonians to send assistance to the Syracusans, and to form an alliance with the king of Persia.

The Syracusans needed help greatly, for they had been reduced almost to despair by the bold attacks and close siege of the Athenian general Nicias. However, Gylippus, the general sent against him by the Spartans, proved as able as his opponent, and with his troops soon restored the struggle to an equal footing. Sicily now became the chief centre of the war. Both sides were heavily reinforced; the flower of the Athenian army and navy gathered at Syracuse.

At last the Spartans and Syracusans combined managed to win a complete victory. The Athenian fleet was destroyed and the army, left unsupported and unprovisioned in a strange country, surrendered in a body, after suffering all the tortures of flight and starvation. Nicias, their general, was put to death, and the entire army became Sicilian slaves. This is considered one of the great decisive battles of the world, for it broke the power of Athens. It left her hopeless of the universal empire toward which she had been aiming; and her struggle now became only that of the captive in the toils, a battling for mere existence among the enemies that hemmed her round.

This was in the year B.C. 413, and all Greece supposed that Athens must now surrender on whatever terms the allies chose to dictate. Instead, she continued the war with an energy worthy of her in the best days of Pericles. Most of her allies and dependent cities deserted her, threw off her yoke, or even joined the attack against her; but every remaining citizen devoted himself and his fortune actively to the struggle. Ship after ship was built and manned. The city with its giant walls remained impregnable. Throughout the next eight years the Peloponnesian war was carried on mainly at sea off the coast of Asia. Sparta did not hesitate to ally herself with Persia, which could never forgive Athens for the humiliation suffered at her hands a few years before. Thus it was that Persian gold enabled Sparta to wage the contest against Athens, which, however, made a bold stand and kept up the contest with amazing vigor.

Alcibiades had gone to Chios and soon had all Ionia in revolt against Athens; but his popularity roused the jealousy of the leading men in Sparta, who ordered their generals in Asia to have him assassinated. Alcibiades learned of the plot and fled to Tissaphernes, a Persian satrap, to whom he soon made himself indispensable. He resumed his old luxurious habits and represented to Tissaphernes that it was against the interests of Persia to disable the Athenians.

The next step of the audacious Alcibiades was to send word to the commanders of the Athenian forces at Samos that he would procure for them the friendship of the satrap if they would commit the government of Athens to an oligarchy. This offer was accepted by the desperate citizens, and the supreme power was vested in a council of four hundred persons, but the body did not recall Alcibiades. This so angered the army that they chose him as their commander, and demanded that he should lead them against Athens and overthrow the tyrants. Alcibiades thought it wise to postpone his return until after he had rendered Athens some signal service. Accordingly, he attacked and defeated the Lacedæmonians both by sea and land. Tissaphernes ordered him to be arrested on his return to Sardis, but Alcibiades found means to escape, and, again placing himself at the head of the army, defeated the Lacedæmonians and Persians at Cyzicus; captured Cyzicus, Chalcedon, and Byzantium; restored to the Athenians the dominion of the sea, and then in the year B.C. 407 returned to Athens, where he was received with unbounded enthusiasm.

Being now in one sense the foremost man of his country, he was sent again into Asia with one hundred ships, but being distressed because he was not supplied with money for the soldiers' pay, he was obliged to ask assistance at Caria, when he turned over the command for the time to Antiochus, who was drawn into an ambushade by the Spartan admiral Lysander, killed, and a part of his ships captured. This gave the opportunity to the enemies of Alcibiades to accuse him and appoint another commander. He went to Thrace and lived in voluntary exile in Pactyæ, one of his splendid castles and a small part of his former spoils. A couple of years later, finding himself in danger from the Lacedæmonians, he proceeded to Bithynia, intending to go to Artaxerxes, the Persian king, and try to win him over to the interests of his country.

The tyrants then ruling in Athens sent a request which brought an order to Pharnabazus, a satrap of Artaxerxes, to put Alcibiades to death. His castle in Phrygia was surrounded and set on fire, and while trying to escape from the flames he was pierced to death by a shower of arrows. Thus died Alcibiades in B.C. 404, in the forty-fifth year of his age.

Meanwhile the Spartan Lysander had inflicted another and final defeat upon the Athenians. While they were engaged in ravaging Chios, they learned that Lysander had begun the siege of Lamsacus, and they immediately sailed for the Hellespont, arriving too late to save the town, but they moved up the strait and took post at Ægos Potamos, or Goat's River (B.C. 405). The position was a bad one in every respect, it being so difficult to obtain supplies that the seamen were obliged to leave their ships to procure their meals. Naturally the Athenians were eager to bring Lysander to an engagement, but since he had an excellent position and an abundance of provisions, he chose to await his own

convenience. He refused so persistently to come out and fight that the Athenians looked upon his conduct as cowardice, and became negligent.

This was what the wily Spartan admiral Lysander was waiting for, and when his opportunity came, he passed swiftly across the strait with his ships. Of the one hundred and eighty Athenian vessels no more than a dozen were prepared for attack, and he captured all the rest without striking a blow. Among those that escaped was the trireme of Conon, the Athenian commander, who, afraid to return to Athens after such shameless incompetency, took refuge with the prince of Salamis in Cyprus. All the Athenian prisoners, numbering nearly four thousand, were put to death, in retaliation for the cruelty perpetrated upon Spartan captives. A shameful feature of this crowning disgrace was that it was aided by the connivance of some of the Athenian generals, a number of whom were always open to corruption and bribery.

This overwhelming disaster sealed the doom of Athens. All her dependencies, with the exception of Samos, yielded at once to Lysander. With starvation stalking in her streets, the capital girded its loins for the supreme struggle. But famine did its insidious work, and the gaunt defenders surrendered on condition that the long walls and the fortifications of Piræus should be demolished; that the Athenians should give up all their foreign possessions and restrict themselves to their own territory; that they should yield their ships of war, and should receive back all their exiles and become the allies of Sparta. It was in the latter part of March, B.C. 404, that Lysander sailed into Piræus, took formal possession of Athens, and all the conditions of the surrender were carried out amid the gloom and unspeakable depression of the people and a carnival of rejoicing on the part of the conquerors. Thus ended the Peloponnesian war, which had lasted for twenty-seven years.



GREEK SOLDIERS IN HEAVY AND LIGHT ARMOR



DEATH OF EPAMINONDAS

## Chapter XX

### SPARTAN AND THEBAN SUPREMACY



SPARTA stood without a rival in Greece after the fall and decline of Athens, and for thirty-four years the Lacedæmonian sway was supreme. Yet, despite the humbling of Athens, it was during the period named that Greek genius put forth some of its choicest blossoms of art and literature, which have been the charm of the succeeding ages. Marvellous indeed were the gifts imparted to that wonderful people.

We have already learned of the alliance between the Persians and Sparta, by which the might of Athens was overthrown. Now, Cyrus the Younger was the second of the sons of Darius Nothus, or Ochus, and he plotted against his brother Artaxerxes Mnemon, who had succeeded to the Persian throne in B.C. 404. The plot being discovered, he was at first sentenced to death, but afterward pardoned and even made satrap of Asia Minor. Cyrus returned to Sardis filled with flaming resentment and re-

solved never to rest until he had dethroned his brother; but he bided his time.

The peace which followed the fall of Athens seemed to be his opportunity, for thousands of the incomparable Greek soldiers were idle or driven into exile, and would welcome employment in his service. He hired a large number under the pretext of a private war with the satrap Tissaphernes, for he knew that every man of them was the equal of three or four of his own countrymen. The preparations for so important an enterprise as that of Cyrus consumed time,

and were not completed until the opening of B.C. 401. When he marched from Sardis his army numbered 100,000 Asiatics, besides 13,000 Greek mercenaries. He gave out that the object of the expedition was to chastise the mountain robbers in Pisidia, only one or two of the leaders knowing the truth. Among the volunteers was Xenophon, to whose *Anabasis* we owe the history of the enterprise. The march was an imposing one, but when Pisidia was passed the Greeks saw they had been deceived, and suspected the real object of the expedition to be the dethronement of the Persian king. They were incensed and would have turned back but for the dangers and the long distance behind them. They sent a deputation to Cyrus demanding to know his real intention. He replied that it was to march against the satrap of Syria, who was encamped on the banks of the Euphrates. The reply was accompanied by the promise to raise the pay of the Greeks, and, though they still suspected a trick, they decided to remain with the army, which marched forward to Issus, the last town in Cilicia, and on the gulf of the same name. There they met the fleet which brought 1,100 more Greek soldiers. When the Euphrates was reached Cyrus revealed the real object of the expedition; but it had generally been suspected, and the resentment of the Greeks was soothed by the promise of abundant pay and plunder. At a place called Cunaxa, they were attacked by Artaxerxes with a host that numbered nearly a million men, which smothered the army of Cyrus, who was killed while making a furious attempt to reach and slay his brother. The retreat of the remaining Greeks, the "Ten Thousand," as they were called, who were fifteen hundred miles from Sardis and were compelled to overcome all manner of danger and difficulties, is a most interesting story.

Their leaders were entrapped by the Persian monarch and murdered at a banquet to which he invited them. This, he thought, would settle the fate of the remainder, who must inevitably surrender. Indeed they seem to have been on the point of doing this, when Xenophon roused them to resistance. He was chosen one of their leaders, and, defying the whole force of Persia, led them on their march back to Greece. They had no guides, or only such as misled them, so they marched directly northward, knowing that thus they must eventually reach the Baltic Sea. The Persians assailed them continually; they had to cross mountain chains where many perished from the cold; they had to derive their sustenance from the wild regions through which they passed, and to defeat the ambuscades of savage tribes. Yet their valor and Xenophon's leadership brought them safely through all, and at last, after a march of many months, they reached the sea. After hailing it with such extravagance of joy as might be expected from men who had hardly even dared to hope for escape, they followed along the shores to safety among the Grecian colonies that lined the sea. This expedition had a most important effect in after years in that it

suggested to one Greek that he, too, might march an army through the heart of the Persian empire, but toward its capital, not away from it.

We must now return to the main thread of our narrative which follows that of Spartan supremacy, resulting from the victory at Ægos Potamos, and which continued till the defeat at Leuctra in B.C. 371. Persia could not fail to see the jealousy and dislike of the other Grecian states to the newly acquired empire of Sparta, and she turned it to good account. By distributing a large sum of money, Thebes, Corinth, and Argos were brought in line with Persia, and the hostilities which soon opened were at first confined to Sparta and Thebes. But the flames spread and the strange sight was seen of the Thebans applying to their old rivals and implacable enemies, the Athenians, for help, with the offer to assist them in recovering their lost empire, and the Athenians promptly granted their appeal. The army of Lysander was routed by the Thebans, and that distinguished commander slain, the Lacedæmonians being compelled to withdraw from the territory.

This humiliation of Sparta led her enemies to take fresh courage. Thebes, Athens, Corinth, and Argos formed a league against her, and were soon joined by the Eubœans, the Acarnanians, the Ozolian Locrians, the Ambraciots, the Leucadians, and the Chalcidians of Thrace. Because a large force of the allies assembled at Corinth in the spring of B.C. 394, the war is known in history as the Corinthian. The battle of Corinth was fought in July, and though the allies of the Lacedæmonians were routed, the victory went to their leaders.

Within a space of less than two months, two battles on land and one on sea were fought. The Spartans were successful on the land, though not decisively so, but the naval defeat at Cnidus caused the loss of nearly all of their maritime empire.

In the spring of B.C. 393, the Athenian admiral Conon and the satrap Pharnabazus sailed from the Hellespont with a powerful fleet and headed for the Peloponnesus. Placing an Athenian garrison on the captured island of Cythera, they proceeded to the isthmus of Corinth, then occupied as a central post by the allies. Conon obtained the consent of the satrap to rebuild the fortifications of Piræus and the long walls of Athens, not because of the love of Pharnabazus for Athens, but because of his greater hatred of Sparta. It was a strange reversal of fortune that the Thebans who had been most delighted with the despoiling and fall of Athens, and the Persians who paid Sparta to destroy it, now joined hands in rebuilding it.

The pendulum of war swung back and forth until the disgraceful peace of Antalcidas was concluded in the year B.C. 387, by which Hellas was prostrated at the feet of Persia, for the terms engraven on stone and set up in the sanctuaries of Greece accepted the barbarian king as the arbiter of her destinies.



Sparta pretended to aim to secure the independence of the Grecian cities, but her real purpose was to break up the confederacies formed by Athens and Thebes, and, with the aid of Persia, become supreme in Greece.

Sparta did not delay her plans for the weakening of her most dreaded enemy Thebes, which in the end was forced to become a member of the hated Lacedæmonian alliance. The power of Sparta on land soon reached its greatest height, while she divided with Athens the empire of the smaller islands, most of the larger ones retaining their independence of both.

And yet it was in Thebes that a new power was arising that was to stop the insolent advance of Spartan despotism, and tumble Sparta forever from her high estate. The three years during which Thebes was in the hands of the Spartans were years of ferment, growth, plotting, and crystallization of the ever-deepening hatred of the Thebans against their oppressors. This was now to take definite form, so that when the hour came for action, the man, or rather the men, to strike the blow were ready and waiting.

The rise and greatness of Thebes were due to two persons—Pelopidas and Epaminondas. The former was a daring, chivalrous young man of noble descent and immense wealth, while Epaminondas belonged to the very poorest class, but was one of the ablest generals whose names illumine the pages of Grecian history. The inviolable friendship that existed between these two is one of the most beautiful things in the annals of their country. Either was ready to sacrifice his own life at any hour for the other. Once when Pelopidas was wounded and thrown down in battle, Epaminondas stood over him and protected him with his shield, holding his ground against a ring of enemies until help arrived. This incident cemented their friendship. Pelopidas was driven out of Thebes in B.C. 382 by the oligarchical party, who were supported by the Spartans. He was forced to take refuge in Athens, whence he returned to Thebes three years later, with a number of spirits as daring as himself, entered the city in disguise, and recovered possession of the citadel, slaying the Spartan leader with his own hand. Epaminondas knew of the plot, but his sense of honor would not permit him to take a hand in what was really a treacherous piece of work, but when the revolution was set on foot he gave it his ardent support. The grateful assembly unanimously chose Pelopidas, Charon, and Mellon as the first restored Boetarchs. In order to force Athens into becoming the ally of Thebes, in the struggle against Sparta, Sphodrias, a Spartan general, was bribed to invade Attica. This so enraged the Athenians that they made the desired alliance with Thebes, and in B.C. 378 declared war against Sparta.

Pelopidas gave all his energies to the training and disciplining of his troops, who soon became as formidable as the Lacedæmonians. He organized the famous "Sacred Band," composed of Theban youths to the number of 300, sup-

ported at public expense and always under arms. The Thebans were naturally good soldiers, but their great fortune lay in having Epaminondas as commander-in-chief. Under his leadership the successes of the Thebans and Athenians were so decisive that Sparta appealed to Persia for intervention; but the sufferings of the war, and perhaps also the jealousy of the growing power of Thebes, caused Athens to open negotiations with Sparta, and a congress assembled in that city to arrange the terms of peace.

Now arose a dispute as to the manner in which the terms should be signed by the representatives of the different parties. Sparta ratified the treaty for herself and allies, but Athens did so only for herself, leaving each ally to sign separately. When the turn of Thebes came, Epaminondas refused to sign except in the name of the Bœotian confederation, maintaining that the title of Thebes to the leadership of Bœotia rested on as good a foundation as that of Sparta to the sovereignty of Laconia, which depended wholly upon the power of the sword.

This view was enforced in an able speech, which was received by the Spartans as the most flagrant of insults. Their king Agesilaus angrily sprang to his feet, and turning upon Epaminondas called out, "Speak! Will you or will you not leave each Bœotian city independent?" Epaminondas calmly replied with the question, "Will *you* leave each of the Laconian towns independent?" Agesilaus was too angry to reply, but ordered the name of the Thebans struck out of the treaty and proclaimed them excluded from it. The peace concluded on the part of Sparta, Athens, and their allies is known as the peace of Callias.

The renewed war between Sparta and Thebes brought on the decisive battle of Leuctra, fought in B.C. 371, in which the military genius of Epaminondas, the Theban commander-in-chief, and the brilliant support of Pelopidas outweighed the much superior numbers of the Spartans. In this engagement, Epaminondas for the first time employed the strategy of Napoleon Bonaparte, through which in later years he won many of his greatest victories. This was in concentrating heavy masses of troops and hurling them irresistibly against some point of the enemy's line. Pelopidas, with his Sacred Band, formed the front of this terrific wedge, which drove everything before it. Cleombrotus, the Spartan king, was killed, and his whole army put to flight, with a loss ten times greater than that of the Thebans.

Two years later Epaminondas and Pelopidas marched into the Peloponnese and incited several tribes to turn against Sparta, toward which city the two marched with their troops; but it was so ably defended by Agesilaus that the Thebans withdrew and returned to their city. These operations compelled Epaminondas to hold the command of his army a short time beyond the period for which he was appointed, and he was now accused of violating the laws of

his country. He replied that he was willing to die if the Thebans would record that he was put to death because he had humbled Sparta and taught his countrymen how to conquer her armies. He was acquitted and became more loved and honored than before.

In B.C. 368 Epaminondas sent an expedition against the ferocious tyrant Alexander of Phæræ, who treacherously made Pelopidas a prisoner while acting in the character of an ambassador. Epaminondas led a force the following year into the country, and conducted the matter with such tact and skill that he secured the release of his friend without harm to him.

In B.C. 364 Pelopidas led an expedition into Thessaly against Alexander of Phæræ, who met him with a much superior force among the hills of Cynoscephalæ, but was routed by the impetuous Theban and his troops. Catching sight of the man who had treated him so treacherously, as he was trying to rally his forces, Pelopidas gave way to his rage and rushing forward challenged him to a single combat. The frightened Alexander shrank back among his guards, but Pelopidas dashed after him and was killed while desperately striving to get within reach of his foe. His death robbed the victory of the joy that otherwise would have been felt throughout Thebes.

It was in the spring of B.C. 368 that the war between Sparta and Thebes was renewed with great fury. Epaminondas again marched into the Peloponnesus, but did not accomplish much, and, returning home, received a check at Corinth. To retrieve this lack of success, he advanced with 33,000 men into Arcadia and met the main body of the enemy near Mantinea, in B.C. 362. At the head of his troops he broke the Spartan phalanx, but was mortally wounded in the breast by a javelin. He was carried off the field and told by the physicians that he would die as soon as the weapon was extracted. He waited until he learned that his army was victorious, when it is said he tore out the javelin with his own hand, saying, "I have lived long enough." Thus died a truly great man, whose moral purity, justice, and clemency were admired as much as his military talents, and of whom it is recorded that such was his horror of an untruth that he was never known to tell a lie even in jest.

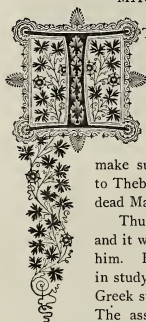
It may be said of Epaminondas, as it was said in modern times of Washington, that the life and death of his country was involved in him. He gave Thebes its commanding influence, and when he died it perished with him. Just before passing away he advised the making of peace, and it was done. This treaty left everything as it was, with the acknowledgment of the Arcadian constitution and the independence of Messene. Because of the last article Sparta refused to join in the treaty, but none of her allies supported her in this step, and Sparta herself was in the dust, from which she never fully rose again.



THE WOUNDING OF PHILIP

## Chapter XXI

### MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY—PHILIP



It was in the year B.C. 368 that Pelopidas led a Theban force into Thessaly for the purpose of protecting several cities against its king, the miscreant Alexander, who afterward treacherously made him prisoner. Alexander was compelled to sue for peace, and Pelopidas passed into Macedonia, whereupon its regent, Ptolemy, formed an alliance with the Thebans. To make sure it would be observed, a number of hostages were sent to Thebes, and among them was Philip, the youngest son of the dead Macedonian king.

Thus it came about that Philip spent several years at Thebes, and it was the most fortunate thing that could have happened to him. He was a remarkable young man, who employed his time in studying the art of war, and the constitution and laws of the Greek states, as well as the literature and character of the people. The assassination of his eldest brother, Alexander II., after a reign of only two years, and the death of his second brother, Perdiccas III., in battle in B.C. 360, made Philip guardian to his nephew Amyntas, still an infant, but the stress of events soon brought Philip to the throne, the rights of Amyntas being set aside.

Now Macedonia in ancient times was a country of small extent, lying north of Thessaly, embracing only the district of Emathia, but it gradually grew until in the time of Philip it reached on the north the Scardian Mountains, a portion

of the modern Balkan range; on the west, the borders of Epirus and Illyria; on the east, the river Strymon, and on the south Thessaly. As a whole, the country is mountainous, especially in the south and west, but it has a number of large plains of great fertility. In remote years Macedon was famous for its gold and silver mines and its productiveness in oil and wine. It contained numerous populous cities, the principal of which were Pella, the capital, Pydna, Thessalonica, Potidæ, Olynthus, Philippi, and Amphipolis, some of which you will remember as being mentioned in the Scriptures.

The language of the Macedonians differed from and yet was allied to the Greek, but it is a singular fact that it contained words not used in the Greek, but preserved in Latin, which would indicate that the inhabitants and those of Greece proper were united at a very ancient period, but that unknown causes prevented the early development of the Macedonians.

The history of Macedon is vague until about B.C. 490, when the Persians subdued it, and its king Alexander I. was compelled to aid Xerxes in his invasion of Greece, but on the retreat of the Persians Macedonia regained its independence. It grew rapidly in strength and power under the wise reign of Archelaus, who died in B.C. 399, when a series of civil wars desolated the country, and ended in the accession of Philip II. to the throne.

He was only twenty-three years old, and he was met by dangers which might well have daunted a less aggressive and ambitious spirit. He easily freed himself of two pretenders to the throne, and then confronted the Pæonians and Illyrians, who were preparing to invade Macedonia. The former were subdued with little effort, and then Philip marched with a force of ten thousand men against the Illyrians. This was his first battle, and he brought into play the art of war as he had learned it from Epaminondas, its ancient master. By concentrating his troops and precipitating them against one point in the enemy's line, he routed the Illyrians and destroyed two-thirds of their army. The people were compelled to submit unconditionally.

Throughout the years of his young manhood, a grand scheme had been gradually taking shape in the brain of Philip. This was not to conquer Greece, but to have Macedonia recognized and accepted as a Greek state, and then to make it the leading one, thus becoming the successor of Athens, Sparta, and Thebes. The manner in which this remarkable scheme was carried through to success reflects the highest credit upon Philip's skill. He was handsome and attractive in appearance, very eloquent, overflowing with what we call magnetism, and he was never bothered by moral scruples. When he set his heart upon an object, he neglected no means of securing it. If corruption was necessary, he used it freely, and it is said he often boasted that he had taken more towns with silver than with iron. When, however, force was re-

quired, no man knew better how to apply it than he, and his rugged strength gave him the power to stand all the hardships of the most difficult campaigns.

With his far-reaching scheme ever before him, Philip trained his army to the highest point of efficiency. Early in his career he introduced the celebrated Macedonian phalanx, and amazed and gratified most of his countrymen by the establishment of a standing army. Here is an incident that illustrates the methods of this extraordinary man:

Amphipolis, on his eastern frontier, was once the most highly valued of cities to the Athenians, who, although they made several attempts, had never been able to recover it after its capture by Brasidas, in the eighth year of the Peloponnesian war. Its site at the mouth of the Strymon gave it the highest value to Macedonia as a commercial port, and also as opening a passage into Thrace. The Olynthians were equally anxious to secure Amphipolis as a member of their confederacy, and proposed to Athens that they should form an alliance and compel Philip to keep his hands off. Such an alliance would have been insurmountable to him, and he set out to prevent it. His first step was to promise the Athenians to secure Amphipolis for them if they would give him possession of Pydna. This pledge caused the Athenians to reject the proposal of the Olynthians. Then Philip ceded the town of Anthemus to the latter and thus satisfied them. He next laid siege to Amphipolis, which surrendered in the year B.C. 358. Advancing against Pydna, he compelled its submission, and then, on the ground that he had secured it without the help of the Athenians, he refused to let them have Amphipolis.

But the subtle king had not yet threaded his way out of the labyrinth. Nothing would seem more natural than for Athens and Olynthia to hasten with their alliance when they saw how they had been outwitted. It was the Athenians who were most bitter against him, so he set to work to win the favor of the Olynthians. He helped them in recovering Potidæa from the Athenians, but treated the Athenian garrison with great kindness and allowed them to go home in safety.

Crossing the Strymon, Philip secured possession of the Pangæus range of mountains, belonging to the Athenians, and containing valuable gold mines. There he founded the famous town of Philippi, and through superior methods secured a product from the gold mines of more than a million dollars annually.

And all this time Athens could not raise a hand to prevent, because of the war with her allies known as the *Social War*. This broke out in B.C. 357, and was due to the heavy taxes laid upon the allies by Athens. They formed a coalition against the parent government, which two years later was compelled to assent to a disadvantageous peace, which secured the independence of the more important allies.

Everything seemed to work in favor of Philip. The *Sacred War* raged at the same time as the *Social War*, and was between Thebes and Phocis. The relations between those two countries, as we say in these days, had been strained for a long time, and the Phocians reluctantly joined the Theban alliance. They sullenly refused to give any assistance to Epaminondas during his last campaign in the Peloponnesus, and after his death they struck at Bœotia more than once.

The Amphictyonic Council was the central political and religious court of the leading Greek tribes, and was held twice a year. Its purpose was twofold: to determine questions of international law and to preserve the religious institutions of the Greeks. It was a powerful means of binding the different tribes in a bond of brotherhood, but the pledges of its members were often broken, and it never checked the ambitious projects of a really able man.

The Thebans used their influence in the Amphictyonic Council to induce that body to impose a heavy fine upon the Phocians, on the charge that they had cultivated a part of the Cirrhæan plain, which had been consecrated to the Delphian god with curses pronounced upon those who should thus desecrate the ground. The Phocians protested that the fine was so exorbitant that to pay it would ruin them; the Amphictyons replied by doubling the amount, with the warning that if they did not pay they would be reduced to the condition of serfs. Driven to desperation, the Phocians seized the temple of Delphi itself, to which they claimed an ancient right. The leader in this daring act was Philomelus, whose force numbered about two thousand men. He destroyed the records containing the sentence of the Amphictyons, and appealed to all Greece against its injustice. Receiving reinforcements, he invaded the Locrian territory and defeated the forces there in a pitched battle.

The Locrians now applied to Thebes for aid. Philomelus, as master of the oracle, easily secured a decree sanctioning all that he had done, and sent envoys to the different cities, assuring each that the treasures of Delphi had not been touched. Sparta and Athens consented to form an alliance with Philomelus, but Thebes repelled his messengers with threats and did all she could to help the Locrians. Messages were sent to rouse the Thessalians and all the northern tribes that belonged to the Amphictyonic Council. This new and formidable danger caused Philomelus to throw aside all disguise, and he announced that the sacred treasures should be used for the payment of the mercenaries who now crowded around him. In the war which followed, all prisoners were put to death, Philomelus losing his life in the last important battle. The war was still going on under his successor when Philip of Macedon interfered.

In the sharp fighting which followed, Philip met several defeats, but in the

main he was victorious. He assumed the character of a champion of the Delphic god, and by his orders his soldiers wore wreaths of laurel plucked in the groves of Tempe. A victory in B.C. 352 made Philip master of Thessaly. Then he marched against the Phocians, but a strong Athenian force at Thermopylæ compelled him to retreat.

All this time Philip was playing his deep game, but there seemed only one man in Greece who had the wisdom to penetrate his purposes and the courage to denounce them. That man was the greatest orator of ancient times—Demosthenes.

Who has not heard of this wonderful man, who was born in Athens about B.C. 385, though the exact year is unknown? He was swindled out of his fortune by the stewards who had care of it during his boyhood. Upon reaching maturity he prosecuted them, but secured only sufficient to save him from poverty. His success induced him to study the laws and politics of his country with a labor and perseverance never equalled. His voice was harsh, his utterance stammering, and his health frail. He strengthened his lungs by climbing steep hills, reciting as he went, spoke with pebbles in his mouth and thus overcame his stammering, declaimed on the shores of the sea in stormy weather, took lessons from a famous actor, practised before a mirror, and toiled for months at a time without intermission, except to eat and sleep. He first began to take part in public affairs when about thirty years of age, and henceforward to his death his history is the history of Athens.

Recognizing Philip as the enemy of the liberties of Greece, Demosthenes in his first "Philippic" (a word that has become incorporated in our language) tried to rouse his countrymen to their danger, but was only partially successful. Olynthus was the head of thirty-two towns, and, when in B.C. 350 Philip captured one of them in Chalcidice, Olynthus awoke to its danger and sent envoys to Athens to beg for help. It was on this occasion that Demosthenes delivered his three Olynthiac orations, in which with burning eloquence he urged an alliance with Olynthus. He was opposed by the dry, cynical, but pure and disinterested statesman Phocion, whom Demosthenes feared more than any other man. His opposition so crippled the efforts of the Athenians that Philip captured town after town of the confederacy, and finally (B.C. 347) secured Olynthus itself, razed it to the ground and sold the inhabitants into slavery. This made Philip master of the whole of the Chalcidian peninsula.

No one could now fail to see the peril of Athens. The freedom of the Greek towns on the Hellespont was threatened and the possessions in the Chersonese were in danger. Demosthenes turned his efforts to persuading his countrymen to form an alliance among the Grecian states, to check the overshadowing power that threatened the liberty of all. Many of the politicians



who had formerly opposed him arrayed themselves on his side, but their efforts came to nothing.

The attention of the Athenians was next turned toward a reconciliation with Thebes, where the progress of the Sacred War seemed favorable to the plan, for Thebes was weary of the exhausting struggle. The shrewd Philip saw his danger, and in the summer of B.C. 347 made several overtures to the Athenians, which were received with suspicion by some, and with favor by others. It was decided to send ten ambassadors to Philip's court, among whom was Demosthenes. This was one of the occasions when the Macedonian used gold and lavish hospitality with effect. The peerless orator was incorruptible, but it was not so with his companions, enough of whom yielded to the blandishments of Philip to render the whole scheme a dismal failure. Subsequent attempts were brought to naught, and in the end Philip conquered all Phocis, occupied Delphi, and assembled the Amphictyons to pronounce sentence upon those that had taken part in the sacrilege committed there. This council decreed that all the cities of Phocis, except Abæ, should be destroyed and their inhabitants scattered into villages containing no more than fifty houses each, while they were to replace the stolen treasures in the temple by the payment, through annual instalments, of a sum equal to twelve million dollars. Still further, Sparta was deprived of her share in the Amphictyonic privileges; the two votes of the Phocians were turned over to the Macedonian kings; and Philip was to share with the Thebans and Thessalians the honor of presiding at the Pythian games. This seat in the Amphictyonic Council made Philip a Grecian power, and was sure to give him the pretext for interfering in the affairs of Greece. To Thebes were restored the places which she had lost in Bœotia, and the Sacred War closed in B.C. 346.

Macedon was now the leading power in Greece, and the blindest man among the Athenians read Philip's ambitious designs. Those who had promoted the peace with him were execrated and Demosthenes rose higher than ever in popular favor. The wisdom and pure character of the orator shone forth like the noonday sun. Philip, holding the position lately held by Thebes, declared himself the protector of the Messenians and the ally of the Megalopolitans. Demosthenes was sent into Peloponnesus to counteract his work there, but could do nothing. With his usual fearlessness he publicly accused Philip of perfidy, and that it hurt was proven by the act of the Macedonian in sending an embassy to Athens to complain of the scarifying accusation. This was in B.C. 344, and Demosthenes delivered his second Philippic, aimed chiefly against the orators who supported the Macedonian.

Philip steadily pushed his conquests, and began an attack upon the Greek cities north of the Hellespont. He met with varying success, but it was plain

that the nominal peace between Macedon and Athens was near the breaking point. Fierce fighting soon followed at different points, but, to the disgrace of many of the Athenian leaders, they were corrupted by the gold of Philip and played directly into his hands. Finally, early in B.C. 338, the Amphictyonic Council declared war against the city of Amphissa, and Philip, acting as general for the Council, marched southward. Instead, however, of attacking Amphissa he seized Elatea, the principal town in the eastern part of Phocis, and began rebuilding its fortifications. This action left no doubt that his real design was against Boeotia and Attica.

The news reached Athens at night and threw the city into consternation. Hurried preparations were made against immediate siege, and early the next morning the Five Hundred met in the senate house and the people gathered in the Pnyx, where all with bated breath discussed the astounding tidings. The herald invited any one who chose to speak. There was no response for some minutes, and then Demosthenes ascended the platform and soothed the fears of his countrymen by showing that Philip apparently was not acting in concert with the Thebans, since he had thought it necessary to secure Elatea. He appealed to his hearers to make the most vigorous preparations for defence, and urged them to send an embassy to Thebes to persuade the people to unite with them against the common enemy. The advice was acted upon and ten envoys were sent thither, Demosthenes being one of the number. When they reached Thebes a Macedonian embassy was there, and it was with great difficulty that the Athenians persuaded the Thebans to shut their gates against Philip. The combined Athenian and Theban army marched forth, some time later, to meet Philip, and at first gained some advantage. The decisive battle was fought in August, B.C. 338, on the plain of Chæronea in Boeotia, near the border of Phocia. It is noteworthy that in Philip's army was his youthful son Alexander, who commanded one of the wings. At that early age he gave proof of his great military ability, for he led the charge against the Sacred Band which won the battle. The Band was annihilated, all holding their ground and refusing to fly, and the whole army was routed. Demosthenes was serving as a foot-soldier and was among the disorderly fugitives driven from the field.

This defeat prostrated Greece at the feet of Macedonia, and she now became simply a province of that monarchy. Athens was thrown into so great dismay that many of the wealthier citizens fled, and more would have gone had they not been prevented. Demosthenes exhorted his countrymen to make the utmost preparations for defence, and he was appointed to pronounce the funeral oration over those who had fallen on the battlefield.

The elation of Philip was extraordinary. He is said to have celebrated his great victory by outlandish drunken orgies, during which, so intoxicated that



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